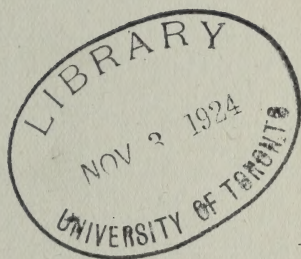


LABOUR LAWS FOR WOMEN IN FRANCE.



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by
L. Hutchins
[B] (i.e. Elizabeth Leigh Hutchins)



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Continued on pp. 3 and 4 of Cover.

Labour Laws for Women in France.

THE social movements and changes that led to the adoption of factory legislation in England, were closely bound up with the evils of what is commonly called "the industrial revolution," and the student of comparative history learns with interest that in spite of great differences in the organisation of society in the two countries, the growth of industry and manufacture under the old system of unregulated competition produced in France results very similar to those observed in England. The introduction of machinery led to the employment of large numbers of women and children, often in bad sanitary conditions and for inordinately long hours. In 1840 Villermé, an able thinker and humane man, having been commissioned by the Académie des Sciences morales et politiques to enquire into the condition of factory workers, published an appeal for reform and amelioration.* He stated that the customary hours of work in these factories were about 13, plus meal-times, the period of employment being thus 15 or even 15½ hours long. Three years later an industrial Commission at Mulhouse took evidence that there were spinning mills in France that detained their workers even 17 hours a day, with an hour and a half off for meals. In 1841 an act was passed restricting the employment of children under 12 to 8 hours a day; and of children under 16, 12 hours a day. It was hoped that the regulation of child-labour might have the salutary effect of reducing the hours of other workers in the mills within the limits of a 12 hours day. The act however, applied only to establishments where more than 20 workers were employed, it made no provision for inspection and remained almost a dead letter.

In 1848, during the Revolution, the provisional Government of the Republic issued a decree, setting forth that "labour unduly prolonged is injurious not only to the worker's health but to his intelligence and character, and therefore impairs the dignity of man"; the customary hours of all workers were therefore to be reduced by one hour, viz. from 11 to 10 in Paris, and from 12 to 11 in the

* "Tableau de l'état physique et moral des ouvriers employés dans les manufactures de coton, de laine et de soie," (p. 85), Paris 1840, 2 vols.

provinces. This decree excited great enthusiasm among the working classes, but also strong objections and controversy. No official had been charged with the duty of carrying out the law, which was found to be unworkable. It was abrogated later in the same year, when a new decree was made raising the hours of workers to 12. This decree was applied to "*usines et manufactures*" (works and factories) only, and is still in force where no women and children are employed. Exemptions on the score of the nature of the work were granted to several trades. As will appear presently, where men work along with women and children, their hours of work are now similarly regulated.

After the war with Germany, the need for building up the physical strength of the people became a subject of anxious consideration. M. Ambroise Joubert, a manufacturer, declared that excessive labour was weakening the health and strength of the youth of the nation. The industrial overstrain imposed on children, and their resulting ignorance and incompetence had been partly the cause of the country's misfortunes, and these errors must, he urged, be rectified. An Act was passed in 1874 which was intended to safeguard the intellectual and physical development of young workers.

The Act of 1874 made a very important advance by providing for a service of inspection. It prohibited the employment of children, girls and women in underground work in mines and quarries. It also prohibited the employment of children under 12, save in some special industries, in which children between 10 and 12 might be employed for six hours a day only. Children over 12 might be employed for 12 hours a day only. The employment of girls under 21 at night was prohibited in factories, *usines et manufactures*. This act was, however, defective in several of its provisions. By implication, girls might be employed at night in workshops, *ateliers*, as these were not mentioned, and boys and girls over 12 were permitted by a special exemption to work in *usines à feu continu*, that is in any works in which it is necessary to keep the furnaces alight at night, and the work going continuously. The work of women over 21 was left quite unregulated except in mines. France was thus decidedly backward under this act, and for 18 years later. In 1892 an important act was passed, which, (taken together with the complementary decrees for health and safety passed in the years next following) brought France into line with the requirements of the modern industrial state. The Act of 1892 placed all mines, quarries, factories, workshops, and all industrial establishments whatsoever, even those of a religious or philanthropic nature, under the control of the law, the only exception being workshops in which the members of a family only are employed. This exception was not admitted for domestic workshops in dangerous trades, or

using steam boilers or mechanical power, in which cases they were placed under the principal sanitary provisions of the Act.

The regulation of children's labour was considerably modified. Half-timers were no longer provided for, but on the other hand the age of employment was raised to 13, though children who could produce an elementary school certificate and a medical certificate of fitness for employment could be employed if over 12. Children under 16 must not be employed more than 10 hours, and persons from 16 to 18 years and women, who were now for the first time included, not more than 11 hours a day, these hours of work to be divided by one or more spells for rest, amounting altogether to at least 1 hour a day. Children under 18, girls under 21, and women might not be employed at night, viz. between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m., but work might be permitted from 4 a.m. to 10 p.m. if divided between relays of workers working no more than 9 hours each.

The Relay System. The regulation of hours introduced by the Act of 1892 was not considered practicable by the manufacturers, and many objections were raised. In the textile industries, which in France, as with ourselves, employ the largest proportion of children, the organisation of industry is usually such that the adult male workers are aided by children, girls or women. The division of labour causes one class of workers to be dependent on another, and neither can work separately. Under the Act of 1892 the manufacturers had 3 alternatives to choose from, viz. (1) sending out the children an hour earlier than the grown workers, (2) reducing the factory day to 10 hours for all workers, or (3) adopting a system of relays. The first alternative was highly inconvenient, in textiles almost impossible; for the second, the employing class was not yet prepared. In some cases an eleven hours day for all workers was introduced, with the Government's permission. Many however preferred the expedient of relays, which was largely adopted in the textile industry, and especially in the cotton-spinning mills of Normandy and the Vosges.* Under this plan the workers in turn get intervals of rest, so as to comply with the letter of the law; they change about and take one another's places, and by these means the mill is kept running longer than any individual worker can be legally employed. The objections to the plan however are many and serious. The difficulty of organisation is great, and in the country especially the supplementary workers are not always easily obtained. But the strongest objection is the difficulty of inspection. The inspector cannot know all the women and children in his district by sight; and

* Bourguin, *Revue d' Economie Politique*, 1901 p. 239.

it is impossible for him to know at what hour each one ought to be resting. Evasions of the law are so easy that in times of brisk trade the temptation is almost irresistible, and even if the law is literally obeyed, it is possible for a so-called protected worker to be kept waiting for his turn so long that in practice the working day encroaches seriously on the night. The divisional inspector of Rouen said that though a child could be legally employed only 10 hours, it might have to remain 14 hours at the mill. Workers had to take their meals at any hours, women and children might have to hang about in or near the factory, and reach home late and exhausted, with time for nothing but a short night's rest.* The evil in the case of the married women workers who were by this means detained so many hours away from home needs no emphasis.

The Act of 1900. The inspectors' reports in the years previous to 1900 shewed that although the permission to use relays had been greatly abused, the act of 1892 had nevertheless in a great many instances been loyally observed, the daily and weekly hours had been shortened, and an 11 or 10 hours' day in many cases introduced for men as well as for women workers. In order to compensate for the shorter day's work the machinery had been improved and speeded up, and certain improvements in organisation had been introduced, aided by the fact which gradually became recognised, that in the shorter day's work supervision was simplified, and mistakes and waste less frequent. The silk manufacturers could show a production actually larger in the shortened than in the longer working day, the women workers especially shewing an improvement in health and efficiency in consequence of the lessened strain and fatigue. The problem was to extend the beneficial operation of the Act by doing away with the obnoxious relay system.† To that end, the Act of 1900 provided for a ten hours' day in all work places where men, women and children were employed together. This provision did not come into force for 4 years; eleven hours was legal for 2 years, 10½ for two years more, and subsequently 10. In all the establishments covered by the Act, save "*usines à feu continu*," (works with con-

* The history of the relay system in France from 1892-1900 finds a close parallel in the adoption of similar methods in England, previous to the amending Factory Act of 1850. See Marx's "Capital," Eng. translation, p. 277.

† In this same year, 1900, the English Conservative Government introduced a Bill to legalise the relay system. It is a curious coincidence, illustrating the ignorance of English politicians of what is going on abroad, that this should have happened in the very year in which the French Government became convinced by evidence that the relay system was impracticable and injurious. The English Bill was soon abandoned.

tinuous furnace) and mines and quarries, the times of rest must be simultaneous for all protected persons. By this provision the expedient of relays was rendered illegal, but in case of any doubt, a further provision explicitly abolished relays. "Shifts" of workers were permitted, if working continuously, and in accordance with the law; but the system of changing about that had been so thoroughly discredited was forbidden. The bill met with some opposition, chiefly on the ground that it temporarily increased the working hours permitted to children. The predominant feeling seems however to have been that the sacrifice, though real, was worth making for the attainment of the "unified," or as we say here, the "normal" day. The reduction of hours appears not to have been very seriously opposed by the manufacturing class. In 1898 the inspector of the 5th circonscription had already reported that many cotton spinners were maintaining the 12 hours day against their own wishes, merely because they feared their competitors would not combine with them to shorten hours. It is stated by M. Bourguin that the abolition of relays and the shortened hours resulted in the cotton trade in greater punctuality and attention, and that the piece work rates having been raised 4 per cent., the daily earnings have been reduced either inconsiderably, or not at all. In the wool combing trade production was at first decreased by about 1 twelfth, owing to the Act. This work varies much according to the quality of wool, and little according to personal activity, and is therefore paid by time and not by piece. It was difficult to evoke intenser effort, and the machines in use could scarcely yield an increased product. The product per hour could thus only be increased by improvements in machinery and these are now being very generally introduced. The workers have obtained a slight increase in the rate per hour, and enjoy an hour's pause at mid-day, which, as their work is carried on at a very high temperature, often above 40 centigrade, is a considerable benefit. In woollen weaving on the contrary the act made little difference, the women having worked only 11 hours without relays since 1892. From the nature of the work, which depends much on the skill and alertness of the worker, relays are here impossible, as the change of hand would be visible in the goods. These examples are taken from an article by M. Bourguin,* on the textile industries of Lille, and are specially interesting as shewing the elasticity with which industry can adapt itself to new methods of organisation, and the crudity of the old fashioned notion that a reduction in hours of work must mechanically induce a diminution of product.

* *Revue d' Economie Politique*. 1901, p. 254.

Dangerous Trades. The French mode of regulating dangerous and unhealthy industries differs in some respects from our English plan of empowering the Secretary of State to draw up special rules for particular trades. In France a general law has been passed requiring certain precautions to be observed in all unhealthy industries, and to the law is appended a list of the industries falling under its control. The list can be modified by administrative decrees to suit exigencies of industrial progress and development. The different branches of industry are placed in two or more groups and the required precautions for the groups are more or less stringent according to the greater or less degree of danger incurred by the affected workers. Dust as well as poisonous or injurious gases must be impelled into the outer air as fast as generated, by means of fans, hoods and suction. Although the literal fulfilment of this section is in practice very difficult, great improvements have been realised in the effort to approach the ideal. The employment of women and children is prohibited in certain specified processes, either altogether, or conditionally on the adoption of special safeguards. (This regulation, giving a premium to the best equipped and best conducted establishments, strikes us as happily conceived.) The manufacture of matches is a monopoly of the State, and the use of white phosphorus was forbidden in 1898. The work therefore presents no feature of special danger, and the health of the workers is described as good, and special precautions are no longer necessary. In the various lead trades the work of women and children has been forbidden in nearly all the dangerous processes. The use of white lead by house painters has been regulated so as to safeguard this sadly unhealthy industry "as far as possible."* Considerations of space prevent our making a further enumeration of these special regulations.

Health and Safety. Sanitary conditions generally are regulated by the provisions of the Act of 1892 and 1893 and the Decree of 1894, with later modifications. Many of these regulations are of course similar to those of our own Factory Act, and others, we regret to think, are not yet included in it. All work places are required to be kept in a cleanly state, and the floors must be cleaned daily, before or after, but not during the hours of work. The walls and ceiling must be "frequently" cleaned. In places where organic matter of a decomposable nature is employed the floor must be both level and impervious, and the walls distempered so as to admit of effective washing. Both walls and floor must be frequently washed with a disinfectant. Work places must be free from any noxious

* Report by Professor Bérard, Bauer's "Industries Insalubres, p. 191."

emanations and the sanitary accommodation must be kept in good order and separate from the workrooms. Meals must not be taken in workrooms. Dressing rooms and washing appliances must be provided, as well as drinking water of good quality. During meal-times the workrooms must be vacated and thoroughly ventilated. Dangerous machinery must be so fenced off from the workers that it is impossible to approach it save for necessary work. Women and children may not be employed in cleaning machinery in motion, and may not be employed in the same room with machinery unless the dangerous portions are fenced or protected. Persons under 18 cannot be employed in working machines moved by a treadle, nor in carrying weights above a certain amount. Girls under 16 may not work treadle sewing machines. Wheeling barrows and trucks is forbidden to girls under 18, and though permitted to boys, the weight in this case is limited. Wheeling trolleys on rails is permitted to boys and girls, but only up to a certain weight, graduated according to age and sex.

The Regulation of Hours of Work of Men.

The effect of the Act of 1900 was to place male workers, so far as those were employed with women, children, or young persons, under the same regulation of hours of work.* This is spoken of as the "unification of the day's work," and is generally recognised as a great benefit to the working class. It however brought into relief the inconsistency of the system which placed adult male workers under three different systems; men employed with women, children or young persons, who are under the Factory Act and restricted to ten hours a day; men employed in factories by themselves, and under the Decree of 1848 restricted to 12 hours a day; men employed in workshops by themselves, under no regulation of hours at all.† The immediate effect of this incongruity was to accentuate the apprenticeship difficulty, which had been increasing for some time previously. In France, as indeed in England, it has been seen for some time that the factory industries which unfortunately facilitate the earning of wages by young children, are a real obstacle to a boy learning a skilled trade. The professions in which apprenticeship is still necessary tend to fall out of favour, the skilled handicrafts, for which France has long been famous, are no longer recruited with young workers, and there is an increasing number of "*ouvriers*"

* Exceptions being made for "*usines à feu continu*," works that is to say where from the nature of the employment the fires must be kept continually burning, as in glass-works, paper mills, blast furnaces, and the like.

† See "*La Limitation Légale de la Journée du Travail en France*," by Raoul Jay. Paris, Alcan, 1906, p. 75.

possessed of no special skill, living from hand to mouth by odd jobs. The Act of 1900 did not create this difficulty, which had been for some time recognised, but undeniably tended to render it more acute.* In some cases children or boys have been discharged for the sake of keeping men at work the full 12 hours, and the difficulty of having a lad properly apprenticed and taught his trade is greater than before. There had therefore been a demand on the part of the inspectors for a general ten hours day, which had been supported by the recommendations of the *Association Nationale* for the protection of workers. The result was that in July 1906, a Government bill was introduced to reduce the work of male adult workers within the limits of 10 hours daily, the limitation to take effect gradually within a period of 4 years. If this bill is carried, it will place France at the head of the great industrial Powers in regard to the regulation of hours of work.

Other Points of the Bill of 1906. This Bill contains other noteworthy provisions. Article 5 provides that in shops and offices,

all employés shall be allowed daily an uninterrupted rest of not less than 10 hours, the period to be indicated by a placard posted in each establishment. Employers and contractors are required by Article 7 to keep a list of names and addresses of all persons employed by them in these persons' own workshops or home.

The Labour Treaty with Italy. Social reformers have long dreamed of International Labour Legislation, of mutual agree-

ments between nations to impose the same measures for the benefit of the worker, and thus calm the fears of those employers who bring forward "International competition" as an argument against the expense entailed them by shorter hours or improved conditions. France and Italy have been the pioneers in the path of International Social Legislation. At the Paris Exposition in 1900, at the International Congress of the Associates for the legal protection of workers, Signor Luzzatti, the Italian delegate, stated that proposals to stop night work in the cotton trade were generally met by the answer that it should first be suppressed in the neighbouring countries which were the commercial competitors of Italy. He believed that similar measures must in the future be arranged by International agreement. Confidential communications between the

* See a highly interesting paper by M. Georges Alfassa "*La Crise de l'Apprentissage*," *Annales des Sciences Politiques* July, 1905. See also "*La Femme dans l'Industrie*," Gonnard, p. 79.

French and Italian delegates at the Conference of Cologne in 1902, and at Rome in 1904, between the French delegates and the Italian Ministers, resulted in a treaty concluded April, 1904, between the two Powers, the purpose of which was to secure reciprocal treatment for the persons of workers, just as reciprocity for the products of labour is secured by commercial treaties, and in particular, to enable workers from either country working in the other to enjoy their savings and insurance, by means of a system of transference between French and Italian savings-banks. Savings deposited in the National Savings Bank of France or of Italy can therefore be transferred from the one to the other free of charge. Pensions obtained in either country can be paid in the other, and equal treatment in cases of compensation for accidents to workers is secured to workers of both nationalities. The treaty also requires that supervisory committees (*comités de patronage*), composed as far as possible of Italians, should be formed to watch over Italian children (large numbers of whom are introduced into France to work in the glass-works and other industries) when lodged away from their families. In return the Italian Government undertook to replace the existing inadequate inspecting body by a more efficient service, and to take steps to bring up Italian factory regulation to the level of French, in the matters especially of prohibiting night work, the age at which labour should be permitted to children, and the length of the working day. The two countries also agreed to act together at International Labour Conferences.

France has shown her continued interest in International Labour Legislation by signing both parts of the Labour Convention at Bern, 1906, and also, by the eminence and distinction of the delegates who represented her at the Conference for protection of workers at Geneva, 1906.

Administration. The Factory Act in France is administered by the *Commission Supérieure du Travail*, and the inspectors working under it. The Commission is composed of two senators and two deputies nominated by their colleagues, plus five members nominated by the President. There are 11 divisional inspectors, and 97 departmental inspectors (19 of whom are women), all these being subordinate to the divisional inspectors. Inspectors are appointed from the results of open competitive examination, and are paid and controlled by the Central Government. Divisional inspectors are chosen from among the departmental inspectors of the two first classes. They control and supervise the work of their subordinates, and are required to meet periodically at Paris for discussion and consideration of the difficulties of their work. They report to and are

advised by the Minister of Commerce and Industry. The system is highly centralised, but there are also local bodies called *commissions départementales*, who have advisory powers and functions.*

The French inspectors have a specially difficult task, owing to the enormous number of small workshops. The many relaxations and exemptions allowed under French law renders control very difficult, and in some cases impossible.† The trend of legislation in the last few years has, however, been to facilitate inspection, and introduce measures to give the workers the full benefit of the law enacted on their behalf.

Home Work. There is as yet no legislation for home work in France, though the requirement of out workers' lists is included in the new bill sketched above, and the requirement of particulars of work and wages, to be given to outworkers and displayed in the employer's office, was included, along with lists of outworkers, among the recommendations of the International Conference of 1906. Home work is indeed the great difficulty of French factory legislation. The vast development of the dressmaking, tailoring and underwear trades, from the most expensive to the cheapest quality, and the ease with which much of this work can be transferred from the workshop to the home, are serious obstacles in the way of factory reform. In its report for 1901, p. XV., the *Commission Supérieure* states that the divisional inspectors report a considerable increase in the number of domestic workshops. Many manufacturers avoid coming under the Factory Act and incurring the expense of costly structural alterations and improvements, by the simple expedient of giving work out to be done in homes. In the report for 1902 the Commission returned to the point with an urgency which showed the gravity of its fears. There could be no doubt that a new kind of industrial organisation was growing up outside the obligations of the law, and under conditions which permitted its continual infringement, especially in exceeding the normal day of women and children. The Commission Départementale of Aube has gone so far as to demand the withdrawal of exemptions from domestic workshops altogether. It is notable, however, that M. Aftalion in a recent study, shews ground for supposing that home work is on the whole diminishing rather than increasing, and is slowly being driven backwards by the better organisation and economy of the great industry. M.

* *La Réglementation et inspection du Travail en France*, by M. Breton, a paper read at the Conference of Paris, 1900.

† See *Le Contrôle de la Durée du Travail*, by M. Georges Alfassa, Paris, Alcan, 1905.

Aftalion does not however, deny that there may be locally an increase of home work in particular industries, and neither he nor, we believe, any other competent observer attempts to deny either the great extent of home work in France, or the serious evils which, as with ourselves, are very generally associated with this form of organisation. There are no doubt a small percentage of highly skilled home workers who make good earnings and need work no more than reasonable hours. But there is an overwhelming mass of evidence shewing that home work is much more often characterised by the worst forms of exploitation, child-labour, long hours, underpayment and unsanitary conditions. The problem, how to deal with home work is now receiving much anxious consideration in France, as with ourselves.*

Conclusion. It will appear from what has been said that it is somewhat difficult to draw a comparison between English and French Labour legislation, as the line of evolution has been very different. Whereas the English system has been built up gradually, here a little, there a little, added as the practical needs of the moment required, the hours of men having been theoretically unregulated, though in practice controlled mediately through the regulations for women and young persons, in France all along we perceive a more idealistic tendency. More than 50 years ago it was explicitly recognised that "excessive labour not only ruins the health of the worker, but by hindering him from developing his intelligence, impairs the dignity of man." The regulation of labour has in theory, at least, been applicable to me all these years, it has been attained as regards a larger class in the recent past, and will probably be completed in the near future. In two other points France goes beyond us; the prohibition of white phosphorus in matchmaking; and the requirements of dressing rooms and washing facilities. This last measure has been asked for in vain by our lady Inspectors for years.† A provision so necessary, so human, so decent, if the most ordinary civilised mode of living among women is to be kept up, ought surely to be included in our Staute Book, and it is to be hoped we shall not be too proud to follow where France has led the way. M. Emile Barrault, who has kindly furnished references and information to the present writer, is able to state from his own knowledge that the provision is well observed.

* See Aftalion *Le Développement de la Fabrique et le Travail à Domicile*, Fagnot, *La Réglementation du Travail en Chambre*, and Benoist, *Les Ouvrières de Paiguille à Paris*.

† Chief Lady Inspector's Report, 1904, p. 243.

BOOKS RECOMMENDED TO STUDENTS.

- Report issued by the Office du Travail on "Hygiène et Sécurité des Travailleurs." Paris, 1895. (British Museum number, 08277, i, 4.)
- Reports from France to the Association Internationale pour la Protection Légale des Travailleurs, 1900, 1902, 1904, 1906.
- La Protection légale des Travailleurs. Edited by A. Lichtenberger. Paris 1904, 3fr. 50.
- La Limitation Légale de la Journée de Travail en France. By Raoul Jay 1906. 60 cents.
- La Femme dans l'Industrie, R. Gonnard. 1906. 3fr. 50.
- La Fabrique et le Travail à Domicile. A. Aftalion. 1906. 3fr. 50.
- Le Contrôle de la Durée du Travail. G. Alfassa. 1905. 60 cts.
- Bulletin of the Association Internationale pour la Protection Légale des Travailleurs.

PUBLICATIONS (*Continued from p. 2 of Cover*).

REPORTS ON TRADES.

Reports of women's work in the following trades have appeared in back numbers of the *Women's Industrial News*. Except Nos. 8, 13 and 18, the enquiries were the work of the Investigation Committee of the Women's Industrial Council. Price 4½d. each post free.

1. Fur-pulling (*News*, March 1898; *Nineteenth Century*, November 897).
2. Typing (*News*, June 898 and September 898).
3. Boot Trade (*News*, September 898).
4. Printing Trades (*News*, Dec. 898 and Dec. 1904; *Economic Journal*, June 1899).
5. Straw Plait Industry (*News*, Sept. 1899).
6. What Occupations are taken up by Girls on Leaving School? (*News*, March 1900).
7. Upholstery (*News*, March 1900; *Open Doors for Women Workers*, 1903).
8. Birmingham Pen Trade (*News*, June 1900).
9. Women's Work in Dustyards (*Economic Journal*, Sept. 1900).
10. Cigar-making (*News*, Sept. 1900 and Dec. 1900; *Economic Journal*, Dec. 1900).
11. Domestic Service (*News*, March 1900, June 1901; *Nineteenth Century*, June, 1903).
12. Pharmacy (*News*, June 1901).
13. The Clothing Trade in Amsterdam (*News*, Sept. 1901, Dec. 1901).
14. French Polishing (*News*, March, 1902).
15. Sanitary Inspecting (*News*, March 1902).
16. Machining (*News*, March 1903).
17. Artificial Flower-making (*News*, June 1903; *Economic Journal*, March, 1903).
18. Fruit-picking (*News*, Sept. 1903).
19. Jewel Case Making (*News*, June 1904).
20. Embroidery, Part I. (*News*, Sept. 1904).
21. Tailoring (*News*, Sept. and Dec. 905; *Economic Journal*, 1904).
22. Millinery (*News*, March 1906).
23. Jewellery (*News*, March, 1907).

The Committee have also partially investigated the following trades, and the information collected may be consulted in manuscript at the office, after written application to the Secretary.

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Lacquering. | 8. Confectionery. |
| 2. Box-making. | 9. Haircutting. |
| 3. Military Cap Making. | 10. Boot-making. |
| 4. Dress-making. | 11. Jewel Case Lining. |
| 5. Mantle-making. | 12. Electrical Fittings Making. |
| 6. Military Tailoring. | 13. Gentlemen's Hat Lining. |
| 7. Leather Working. | 14. Laundry Work and Ironing. |

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W.I.C. COMMITTEE MEETINGS.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 3rd Monday, 3-15 p.m. - - - | INVESTIGATION COMMITTEE. |
| „ 5-0 p.m. - - - | EDUCATION COMMITTEE. |
| 1st Wednesday, 2-30 p.m. - - - | CLUBS INDUSTRIAL ASSOCIATION. |
| „ 3-30 p.m. - - - | ORGANISATIONS COMMITTEE. |
| 4th Monday, 4-30 p.m. - - - | LEGAL COMMITTEE. |
| 4th Thursday, 3-0 p.m. - - - | EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE. |

Visitors are welcomed to all the Committees except the last.

PUBLICATIONS (*Continued from pp. 2 and 3 of Cover*)

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Home Work Bill, reprint of, 1905. 1d.

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Society).

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Home Work amongst Women in Glasgow. Part II., 6d., by post
 $7\frac{1}{2}$ d. (Scottish Council for Women's Trades). Part I. is out of print.

Women as Barmaids, price 1/-, postage $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. (Joint Committee
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The Problem of Home Work, by Miss Irwin. Price 4d., post free
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*4 Labour Laws
Women - Employ^t*

(See)